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ABSTRACT

To meet the need of school decision-makers for an improved teacher and administrator selection process, this paper describes the "state of the art" in selections processes and recommends modifications that could be instituted in most school systems. Over 200 references are cited, with an emphasis on research findings from the last 10 to 15 years. The first two chapters are on teacher and administrator selection, respectively. The third chapter concerns documents dealing directly with women and minorities in education professions. Among the major findings of the report are that most school districts lack an established policy for the selection of teachers or administrators. In addition, the author found that the personal interview is the most utilized selection technique, although hiring officials have seldom had any training in interview techniques. Finally, there is overwhelming evidence that the effectiveness of different selection criteria depends largely on the nature of the local environment. Among the recommendations are that school districts develop a systematic research-based selection program; conduct extensive, planned interviews; continuously monitor the effectiveness of the selection process; and actively recruit members of groups that are underrepresented. (MLF)

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THE SELECTION OF TEACHERS AND SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS: A SYNTHESIS OF THE LITERATURE

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February 1980

This literature review was completed as a subcontract to the Mid-continent Regional Educational Laboratory, Denver, Colorado.

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ABSTRACT

This document is a synthesis of the literature on the selection of public school teachers and administrators. The emphasis is on implications of research for practitioners--namely, the hiring officials in school systems.

Most school districts have no established policy for the selection of school teachers or administrators. Upon reviewing the literature in this area, one must conclude that educators could learn much from business and industry where the importance of the executive selection process is recognized and extensive, systematic selection programs are more frequently used.

There are many information sources which are used in the selection process (e.g., interviews, academic credentials, personal references, recommendations of student teacher supervisors or previous employers, and various tests or inventories). The personal interview is the information-gathering technique most utilized, and it is likely that the interview will remain the most important selection procedure. Interestingly enough, seldom do the hiring officials in the schools have any training in interview techniques. One of the major problems in the evaluation of teacher/administrator candidates has to do with the quality of the measurement devices. Research has shown that interviews can be made more objective and reliable by the use of predetermined interview formats and rating schemes. Certainly, the interview should serve as more than a formality intended to lead to a "gut-level," global impression of a candidate. Other sources of information are important also.

Where possible, objectivity in measurement is desirable; however, subjective evaluations of candidates are also necessary. Different kinds of information, measured by different techniques, are predictive of different "components" of success in teaching or administration. Reliability of candidate ratings can also be enhanced by the involvement of several people in the selection process. A teacher or administrator is not hired to work in isolation, but rather to work cooperatively with various groups. Thus, input from various administrators, teachers, parents and even outside consultants would be of use to those making hiring decisions.

For the selection of teachers, the most widely used and valued selection criteria are student teaching performance, communication skills, various personality traits, academic credentials and physical appearance. The first three are reasonably good predictors of aspects of later teaching success. Research has not shown the fourth, academic credentials, to be highly correlated with teacher ratings; however, the samples which must be used in these studies can only consist of individuals who have successfully completed a teacher education program and been hired as teachers. Since academic credentials are an important prerequisite, they are a principle basis for selection, and so the samples are homogeneous with respect to academic qualifications. This tends to mask the relationship between previous academic performance and teaching performance which most likely exists. Selected teachers are probably not as homogeneous with respect to the other (nonacademic) predictor variables. There is no evidence of a relationship between appearance and teaching success. Other factors sometimes considered in the selection process but which do

not appear to be good predictors of on-the-job performance are IQ, participation in general professional education courses, scores on National Teachers Examinations and philosophy of education. One must remember that new teachers have probably not been involved in the education profession long enough to have developed their own clear philosophies of education. There are probably even many teaching skills which they should not be expected to have mastered. There is considerable research evidence suggesting there is substantial "teacher growth" during the first few years in the profession.

The lists of criteria used for selecting school administrators are not unlike those used for selecting teachers. The research literature does, however, single out leadership potential and evidence of various related skills (e.g., group, communication, community relations skills) as being especially important for administrators. One's philosophy of education appears to be a more important consideration in selecting an administrator than it is in teacher selection. Factors which are continually used in administrator selection, but which are apparently irrelevant in terms of predicting administrator performance, are sex, age, marital status and length of teaching experience. (It is important that administrators have some teaching experience, but more than four or five years of teaching is unnecessary.) Unfortunately, there is very definitely a "political" aspect to the administrator selection process as well.

There is overwhelming evidence that the effectiveness of different selection criteria depends largely on the nature of the local "environment" (i.e., the school, the district or the local

community). Certain criteria seem to work in one instance, but not in another. Thus, the expectation that a common set of procedures and criteria will work in all situations is unreasonable. Selection criteria must be established at the local district or even school level. They must be tailored to the unique goals, values, philosophies and needs of each district or school. This is not to say that a new principal, for example, must have the exact same values and philosophies as those that have predominated in a particular system for years. In fact, the degree to which a candidate is an innovator and offers a new perspective is an important thing for hiring officials to consider in light of the changing needs and goals of their systems. Of course, selection criteria for both teaching and administrative positions would be much more efficient if they were tailored to the specific vacancies as well.

The research on equity in teacher/administrator selection is primarily status research which indicates that women and minorities tend to be underrepresented--especially in administrative positions. The majority of the recommendations for alleviating this problem are fairly obvious and easily summarized: (1) recognize the problem, (2) take action by actively recruiting members of the underrepresented groups.

General Recommendations

The following recommendations emerge from the review of the literature on teacher/administrator selection:

1. Develop a systematic program of selection. The hiring of a teacher or administrator is an important investment.

2. Actively recruit if necessary. The job market is tight, and even the most capable candidates would be receptive. For example, asking someone at a teacher education institution the names of the most promising graduates could do no harm.

3. Use research. Findings summarized in this report and in the original documents could be useful in establishing procedures and criteria.

4. Involve several people in both the development of the program and the evaluation of candidates. Several people will have to work with a new teacher or administrator--they should have some input in the selection process. Consultants, perhaps from teacher education institutions, may be of some service.

5. Use a variety of information-gathering methods and selection criteria. Different methods are appropriate for different kinds of information, and different criteria relate to different components of on-the-job performance.

6. Establish selection criteria locally--at the district or even school level. For some criteria, this may require some simple, but on-going local research.

7. Tailor selection criteria to specific vacancies.

8. There is no shortage of candidates, and therefore no reason to hire someone without superior academic credentials. One strategy might be to screen candidates initially based on academic criteria. Personal and professional qualities of the more promising candidates may be assessed in later stages. (Keep in mind, some qualities may be developed after a teacher has taught for awhile.)

9. Do not underestimate the importance of either objectively or subjectively gathered information on candidates. However, it is advisable to increase objectivity where appropriate. For example, interview guides and rating forms and standard forms for recommendations can be helpful.

10. Many of the criteria valued by educators are difficult to measure. The interview remains an important means of evaluating candidates. Extensive, planned interviews can accomplish far more than superficial interviews which may be mere formalities. Personal contact with supervisors of "finalists" may provide far more information than student teacher evaluation forms.

11. Give candidates as much information as possible about the position and "environmental factors." Self-selection on the part of candidates can simplify and improve the selection process.

12. The success of selection practices requires continuous monitoring. No matter how good a selection program is, there will be some teachers and administrators who do not "work out." Some losses due to occupational changes must be expected, especially among young people. However, knowledge of the specific reasons persons do not work out and the characteristics of those individuals can be useful to the improvement of selection criteria.

13. Continually monitor the representation of different groups, and actively recruit members of those groups which are underrepresented in both teaching and administrative positions.

PREFACE

The selection of a teacher or school administrator constitutes a most important decision. The purpose of this document is to provide the decision makers with a synthesis of the existing knowledge base pertaining to selection procedures and criteria.

This review represents the work of one person working approximately twenty-five days searching, compiling, reading, organizing, writing and editing. Therefore, it should not be considered all inclusive of the available literature. Nevertheless, over two hundred references are cited herein, and together they provide a fairly comprehensive "picture" of the available knowledge of teacher/administrator selection practices. The literature search process involved both computer-assisted and manual search of ERIC documents and dissertation abstracts. The Education Index and the Current Index to Journals in Education were also helpful, and of course, bibliographies of reports and articles themselves were an invaluable source of information.

The literature consists of both reports of research findings and position statements or recommendations of individuals, professional groups or other agencies. The emphasis in the main sections of this report, with a few exceptions, is on research findings from the last ten or fifteen years, while the non-research literature is incorporated into the summary sections.

Hard decisions regarding the scope of this review had to be made. For example, research on teacher/administrator effectiveness

is not summarized in this document. While the studies investigating the effectiveness of selection procedures and criteria generally involved measures of on-the-job success, one must assume those measures reflected someone's informed judgment about effectiveness in teaching or administration. Analyses of on-the-job effectiveness constitute another vast domain of educational research. The names Good, Brophy, Sykes, Flanders, Berliner, Ryans and Turner come to mind as leaders in that area.

The literature summarized in the last chapter on equity is also limited in scope to documents dealing directly with the selection process or with the status of women and minorities in education professions. Again, another related area of research, that dealing with the issue of equality of opportunity in education, had to be "shortchanged" in this review.

The intent of this document is to serve as a starting point for school administrators interested in establishing or improving their selection practices. While it provides no "simple answers," the review contains a great deal of information which should be considered by anyone tasked with the responsibility of selecting teachers or other administrators. It is very likely that the reader will want to refer to some of the original documents cited herein if he or she is committed to establishing a vastly improved selection program.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

This literature review was a project undertaken at the request of the Northern Colorado Educational Board of Cooperative Services (NCEBOCS) in Longmont, Colorado. NCEBOCS provides support services to six Colorado school districts, and this report is a response to the expressed need of personnel in those districts for information regarding the implications of research for school personnel selection.

Special thanks must go to individuals at NCEBOCS. Dr. Raymond Hall was responsible for initiating and coordinating the project. This included the arranging of meetings at which the findings of the study were presented to various groups of school officials in Colorado and the planning of follow-up activities intended to improve personnel selection practices in the districts. Dr. Evelyn Harding contributed her proofing and editing skills and also helped in the development of presentations. Cheryl Woodford was responsible for the actual production of the typewritten draft and final copy of the report.

With the exception of the contributions of NCEBOCS, the project was funded by the Mid-Continent Regional Educational Laboratory in Denver, Colorado. Dr. Antonio Esquibel was the project officer. McREL, in turn, is funded by the National Institute of Education.

Introduction

This paper results from the real need of school administrators for an improved selection process for teacher and administrative positions. The specific instance that prompted the production of this document was a request from local school officials to a Colorado Board of Cooperative Educational Services to assist them in systematizing their personnel selection procedures, so that their selections would be more effective.

We think it important, however, that readers understand that this is not a review of the literature on how existing systems of selection ought to be changed or replaced with alternative systems. Rather, Kahl gives us a description of what might best be called the "state-of-the-art" in teacher and administrator selection and, at the same time, a look at how the state-of-the-art can be improved without major overhaul. That is, Kahl's recommendations seek to make improvements without recourse to sweeping reforms or high-powered outside consultants, but with cheap and easy modifications that can be instituted in most school systems.

While all of Kahl's findings are true generally, and his suggestions valid and feasible, there are two distinct areas of concern--although not so much with the study itself but with the appropriateness of the application of its findings in particular circumstances.

First, the "status quo" the paper describes varies sharply from the unique situations of numerous rural and small schools. (See the attached remarks of Paul Nachtigal, Director of McREL's Rural Schools Project.) Especially in this region, with its significant numbers of

rural and small schools, this raises an entirely different set of issues, or at least creates a different perspective on those same issues that the paper discusses.

Similarly, the situation of women and minorities within the teacher and administrator selection process -- the topic of this paper's third chapter -- must be viewed from a different perspective. Women and minorities, as the studies and statistics Kahl cites amply demonstrate, have a special problem: they too often do not get through the selection "system," and for very different reasons that white male candidates do or do not get through that same "system."

Kahl faces the situation squarely, noting the patterns of hiring underrepresentation for women and blacks. He also notes that other minorities and the handicapped have been "virtually ignored" in the literature on this topic. He makes the point that women are sometimes at an even greater disadvantage than Blacks, that women and blacks typically have more qualifications than white males that hold similar positions, and that "last hired, first fired" is still a reality. Certainly, Kahl's remarks on the issue are cogent, making implications not only to education, but to society in general.

And he makes recommendations as well, pointing out ways agencies and institutions can correct inequities in hiring patterns. These recommendations, as systematic attempts to enforce change, all hinge on one factor, though, that -- if present within any institution -- makes affirmative action plans and court-mandated hiring systems redundant: an administrator at a decision-making level who is committed to equity.

That one administrator, such as the president of a college, or the superintendant of a school district, is capable of "breaking the cycle"

through the conscious act of recruiting and hiring minorities, thereby creating an atmosphere conducive to progress in equity. Without that, affirmative active and "concerted effort" are little more than the words "we do not discriminate on the basis of..." printed at the bottom of a job announcement. It remains true that the educational system's selection process still operates on the basis of personality, the who-you-know-not-what-you-know system of attitudes that created the prevailing inequity in the first place.

David F. Trujillo
Director of Publications
McREL

"Selection of Teachers and School Administrators" -- some comments re the Small School.

Kahl's paper seems to confirm the observation of our [the Educational Commission of the States] rural education improvement study concerning the fact that education tends to be perceived as a generic enterprise. In only two of the studies cited is there a recognition that the issues of teacher/administrator selection may be different in small rural schools. (Halgren 1968, and Culhane 1964)

> "Culhane, for example, concluded that in large school districts more importance is assigned to criteria which are oriented inward toward the values of professional education, while in small districts more importance is assigned to criteria which are oriented toward the social systems outside the school."

The author concludes "Perhaps the latter is a luxury larger systems cannot enjoy considering their heterogeneity". While this is no doubt true, our findings suggest that the tightly knit rural social structure results in the school and the community operating as one integrated social system and, therefore, if teacher selection is to be successful, securing a high degree of match between the values/life style of the individual and the community is imperative. My guess is that more teaching/administrator assignments in small communities are terminated because of one reason or another they do not "fit" the community than because of professional inadequacies. And since there is such diversity in rural communities, securing a good fit is not always easy. In many midwest towns with a strong religious influence, expectations for social conduct will be narrowly defined and teacher behavior closely watched. My first job in a small ranching community in the Colorado Rockies represents the opposite extreme. While being

interviewed for the superintendency, I was informed that the last person to hold that position was "run out of town" because he tried to reform the imbibing habits of the locals. "Sharing the bottle" during half time of basketball games with members of the school board was expected of the superintendent.

Since the quality of educational programs is so people-dependent in small schools, and since staff turnover continues to plague small schools, negating the continuity required for quality program, much more attention needs to be paid to the problems of teacher/ administrator selection. It is my experience that "locals", those who have either grown up in the community or whose values are sufficiently congruent that they wish to stay, and the "transients" whose values lie more with the "profession", e.g. more liberal/urban, and therefore sufficiently in conflict with the local social structure to insure short tenure. Perhaps the primary criteria for selection of small school teachers should be "community fit" and if this results in selecting individuals with professional deficiencies, staff development provisions should be initiated to help overcome these deficiencies.

It has not been too long ago and in fact may still be the practice in some small communities to have teachers as well as administrators interviewed by the board. Given the short tenure of administrators and their tendencies to be more in tune with the profession than the local community, this may not be a bad practice.

There may be some things McREL could contribute to the problem of teacher selection in small schools.

1. Good statistics are needed on teacher turnover by school size and community type to get a better sense of the problem.

2. A study which would interview a sampling of short tenure teachers in rural schools along with a sampling of those who do stay might be useful in identifying the critical factors of teacher/community match.

3. Assuming this research provides some clues to teacher selection re teacher/community match, training sessions for boards and administrators could contribute to the creation of a more stable teaching force in rural communities.

4. Through this process, McREL might also develop some expertise in assisting school boards in administrator selection.

Paul Nachtigal
Director, Rural Education Project
McREL

CHAPTER I

TEACHER SELECTION

The research on teacher selection is divided into two major categories--procedures and criteria. Selection procedures are the methods of gathering and using information on prospective teachers while criteria are the specific items of information gathered. The research on both procedures and criteria seems to address two matters. Status studies determine which procedures and criteria are actually used or valued by different groups. More evaluative studies investigate the relative effectiveness or predictive qualities of different practices or criteria.

Because of the volume of material available on teacher/administrator selection, this review will not deal with research on the selection of college students for teacher education programs. That research generally shows that academic credentials are relied on most heavily and that while performance in teacher education courses is fairly predictable, performance in student teaching and ultimately success in teaching are not readily predicted by information used to screen students for teacher education programs (Haberman, 1972; Durflinger, 1963; Ulin and Belsky, 1971). Haberman contends that admission to teacher education programs is a professional decision and not a student right. Therefore, he suggests that professional criteria should be used in making this decision instead of just academic credentials which predict performance as students, not teachers. More attention should be paid to specific behaviors, values and social-problem orientation.

Since the selection of candidates for teacher education programs is made by college faculty members and is based primarily on previous academic performance, it and the selection of teachers by school administrators appear to be independent of one another. Actually the former is largely a self-selection process on the part of students. Thus, research on that topic will not be reviewed. This does not mean to say that the selection of teacher education students and the selection of teachers should be independent. In fact, one of the implications of the discussion of teacher selection research which follows is that greater coordination between school administrators and college or university faculties is required. Obviously, teacher educators select the potential teachers from which school administrators must choose.

Selection Procedures

Procedures Used

In a study of teacher recruitment and selection practices in Alabama, Hovater (1973) collected survey data from 117 public school systems. Among other things, he concluded that generally (1) written school board policies and procedures pertaining to teacher selection did not exist, (2) written job descriptions/specifications were not used, (3) the interview was the most important factor upon which selection was based, (4) written examinations were not used and (5) there was no objective evaluation of selection practices even though such evaluation was regarded as important.

A survey of teacher selection techniques in 320 large school systems (systems with at least 12,000 pupils) found selection procedures to be generally inadequate (Stollar et al, 1969). Only a quarter of the

systems prepared job descriptions for vacancies. Less than 13% gave examinations. In all systems, prospective teachers were interviewed, but only 30% of the systems trained interviewers even though they were expected to assess as many as thirteen characteristics in a relatively short period of time. All of the systems asked for references, and 25% sought testimonials from friends of the applicants, a practice of questionable value. In only 40% of the systems, were candidates observed in actual teaching situations, and such observations were not extensive. The authors concluded that selection was based primarily on academic records, interviews, recommendations and performance evaluations (of previous employment or student teaching). Many systems did use conditional selection which meant that teachers were hired on a probationary basis at first. In larger systems it appeared that more screening than selection was being done. In smaller districts, although actual observations were used more, "hunch rejections and global perusals" were selection techniques. "Many of the techniques which were used in teacher selection apparently were dictated more by expediency than by reasoned and knowledgeable considerations of what are the best selection procedures."

May and Doerge (1972) identified informational and procedural items regarded as useful in teacher selection by school administrators in Louisiana. The following items were considered to be very useful to essential: application forms, references, certification records, interviews, evaluations by former employer, academic records, use of job descriptions or specifications, involvement of principals and supervisors and the use of a planned program of teacher recruitment and selection. Again the same four information sources emerge as most important--records

or credentials, interviews, references and evaluations.

A 1972 survey of personnel directors in large school systems (having more than 50,000 students) determined that four major measures were used in teacher selection (Deneen et al, 1972). The measures and their "weights" were college grades, 5-30%; practice teaching, 10-50%; references and recommendations, 10-70%; and the National Teachers Examination, 5-45%. Actually the relatively high weightings of NTE scores were based on a small number of districts using the examination.

Yantis and Carey (1972) reported that the personal interview and student teacher evaluations were considered the most important information sources by a large sample of superintendents and personnel directors in Michigan. Hiring officials in several midwestern states were in agreement with this finding, ranking the personal interview and placement credentials far above other selection procedures in importance (Lesher and Wade, 1972). The credentials those hiring officials considered most important were letters of references from cooperating classroom teachers and college student teacher supervisors.

Neu (1978) interviewed thirty elementary principals in the Los Angeles Unified School District. She found that the principals want and do select their own teachers (as opposed to the district making administrative assignments). The personal interview is used by all principals, and yet principals have had no formal training in selection or interview techniques. The principals did express that they would like to have such training. Intuition is the determining factor in a principal's selection of a teacher. An important obser-

vation of Neu's is that the principals look for characteristics in teachers similar to their own, indicating a strong socializing effect of the school district. The role of attitude congruence in selection is discussed in a later section.

A general finding in the literature is that established written policies for the selection of new teachers in a district are all but nonexistent. A study of seventy-four superintendents and school board members investigated the reasons for this situation (Morse, 1963). Apparently such written policies are regarded as additional burdens, and administrators fear they will result in inflexibility with respect to hiring practices.

Relative Effectiveness of Procedures

For a selection procedure to be valuable, it, like a test, must be both reliable and valid. Reliability refers to consistency between uses. For example, different users should come up with the same findings with respect to the same teacher candidates, or the same user should arrive at the same results were he or she to repeat the procedure. A valid procedure accomplishes its purpose. Thus, if a procedure generally results in the selection of effective teachers, it would be considered valid. This same discussion applies to selection criteria which are covered in subsequent sections. Actually the distinction between procedures and criteria is somewhat arbitrary since procedures are general ways of measuring criteria. The research reported in this and the previous sections has not dealt with what specific factors are rated by observers or what questions are asked by interviewers or what items of information are included in records or what specific variables are measured by pshchological inventories.

These specific factors are the criteria. In this section, the research on the reliability and validity of general procedures is reviewed. It should be recognized that particular procedures may be more appropriate for measuring particular criteria.

Reynolds (1976) conducted a study involving 66 raters (principals, teachers and university supervisors). Each rater was asked to rank 24 student teachers in relation to how the rater globally perceived subject performance based on a "performance package" consisting of a videotaped lesson by each subject, a videotaped interview and a resume. The interview data was significantly correlated with the lesson data and resume information, but the latter two were not correlated with one another. The author concluded that the "interview should be retained as the primary method of hiring prospective teachers as long as global evaluation systems are used." Of course, since other procedures may address different factors which are important, this research suggests that many different approaches may be used but not independently. In other words, multiple procedures are desirable. Significant correlations were found between rater groups; thus, it seems that ratings of principals, teachers and supervisors can be equally as useful in the hiring process.

Grandgenett (1972) conducted a study in which 10 school personnel officers were asked to rate 10 teacher candidates on the basis of 15-minute interviews. The judges were then asked to rate the candidates again after seeing the candidates in a videotaped teaching demonstration to determine if the additional information would significantly change the initial ratings. It did not. However, the author noted that the lack of agreement among the judges for both ratings could have masked any effect due to the videotape. This study is cited be-

cause it calls attention to the measurement problem characteristic in much of the research on the effectiveness of teacher selection procedures and criteria.

Another study compared the results of these selection procedures: (1) traditional methods (interview and review of credentials), (2) traditional methods plus live observation of teaching performance and (3) traditional methods plus observation of teaching via videotape (Stone, 1972). It was found that the live observation and the interview had significant effects on suitability decisions while the videotape observations did not. The live observation had a greater effect than the interview in this study.

In another study which suffered from a lack of agreement of raters using either of two procedures being investigated, the two approaches resulted in very different rankings of five teachers by twelve school administrators (Browne, 1971). Both methods involved the review of credential information; however, one also required an interview while the other utilized videotape observation. Had there been greater interrater reliability, the finding of different rankings would not necessarily be a problem. It might merely indicate that very few subjects exhibit the valued characteristics in the two situations. They may be the truly outstanding teachers. Certainly judges would be looking for different things in interviews and observations. Ideally, two measures should be highly correlated with what they are intended to predict (teacher effectiveness) but <u>not</u> highly correlated with one another--otherwise there would be little point in using both.

A comparison of four information sources used in teacher selection found that scores on the Educational Values Inventory, the SRI

Teacher Perceiver Interview and the Student Teacher Reference all correlated significantly with student Grade Point Average, but not with one another (Baker, 1977). Mandala (1977) found that none of the four information sources Baker studied were significantly correlated with measures of teaching performance. Actually, the findings of these two studies are not very helpful, but the authors' recommendations, although not based on their findings, are important. They concluded that any information source should be examined to determine its effectiveness in each district in which it is used. In other words, information sources (as well as specific criteria) should be locally validated.

Nelson (1975) had teachers, principals, department heads and personnel directors use several kinds of "credentials" for rating teacher candidates. The raters were then asked to indicate which credentials they regarded as most important. The four most important were:

(1) standardized letters of reference from cooperating teachers addressing subject mastery, planning skills, teaching ability, classroom climate, evaluation skills and personal characteristics;

(2) ratings of candidates with respect to objectives of methods courses;

(3) videotapes of candidates teaching;

(4) pictograph ratings of candidates by cooperating teachers enabling the comparisons of candidates on items mentioned in (1).

This study did not show that this set of credentials was a better pre-

dictor of teacher effectiveness than other sets of information. However, this combination is viewed favorably in that the raters were more sure of their decisions based on its use.

In another study of the credentials used in teacher selection, Arend (1973) found no relationship between the credentials used and later teaching performance. However, a higher proportion of poor teachers were selected without complete credentials.

There is some evidence that interviews are not used to their fullest potential. They either tend to be superficial, or when more comprehensive information is obtained, it is of little significance. Gonzalez (1967) found that "1) early assessment based on an appraisal of the applicant's confidential file, appearance rating, and the active interview was significantly related to the final decision, 2) biases seemed to be formed early in the interview process and were significantly related to the final decision." Thus, important factors which could be related to subsequent on-the-job performance and which could be assessed in interviews may be overlooked.

Shoemake (1974) found that teachers selected by raters (principals and assistant superintendent) using a predetermined interview format were ultimately more successful in teaching than those selected by raters using no predetermined interview format. The structured interview system was developed based on previous research on selection criteria.

The findings above might suggest the advisability of an interview system much like that developed by Selection Research Incorporated; however some evaluation studies of the SRI method would not lead one to the same conclusion. The SRI Perceiver method is a

screening process whereby a set of prescribed questions are designed to evaluate teacher candidates in terms of personality traits. The method results in a quantitative score on the interview which is intended to be used in conjunction with criteria conventionally used. Schillig (1975) found there was no difference in teaching performance between SRI Perceiver--hired teachers and conventionally hired teachers. Furthermore, there was no significant correlation between SRI Perceiver scores and teaching performance scores. (The performance ratings were made by both students and supervisors.) After a three-year evaluation study of the SRI process, Millard and Brooks (1974) concluded that the SRI process is most successful in identifying probably success in teaching when the criterion of success is student rating and that SRI is not equally effective in every district. The message from these studies seems very clear--a predetermined, structured interview can be quite effective but it should be either developed locally or "tailored" to fit the particular needs, values, attitudes and priorities of each district.

A slightly different type of research has examined the relationships between informational variables and selection decisions. Bolton (1968a,b; 1969, 1974) studied the effects of four information-format variables on decision making. The aspects of decision making of concern were consistency, fineness of descriminations, time and feeling of certainty. He found the optimum format consisted of instructions regarding information processing, a single summary document, no masking of information and interviews via audiovisual means. (Masking refers to the exclusion of information that is not exceptional.) Bolton's study utilized fictitious teacher candidates. One should not assume that the use of filmed interviews would be

superior to conducting live interviews; however, audiovisual interviews are better than none. In related studies, Bauthues (1968, 1969) also found that the number of documents, instructions and masking had effects on various aspects of selection decisions. Hickey (1969) concluded that there is an optimum information level for the selection task--exceeding that level does not significantly improve the quality of decisions. This finding is consistent with a basic notion of multiple regression analysis which is that because of intercorrelations among predictors, the use of additional predictors does not necessarily add to the predictive quality of a set of predictors.

Selection Criteria

Criteria Used

As was the case for general selection procedures, the research on teacher selection criteria fits into two categories--status studies of criteria used and studies of the relative effectiveness of criteria in terms of how well they predict teaching success. In a status study of selection criteria used in Louisiana schools (May and Doerge, 1972), personnel directors ranked categories of information in the following order of importance:

a. Academic criteria
b. Personal criteria
c. Experience related to teaching
d. Professional opinions
e. Job requirements
f. Results of examinations
g. Experience unrelated to teaching
h. Family background

A survey of personnel directors in large New Jersey school systems found the following "weights" assigned to different criteria categories: intellectual qualities, 20-50%; affective qualities, 20-50%; social qualities, 10-40%; and physical qualities, 10-25% (Arend, 1973). Arend recognized the importance of multiple criteria since no single criterion is particularly effective used in isolation, and he also acknowledged local district variation in the valuing of different criteria.

Thirty-one administrators from southern California school districts stressed the importance of college supervisors giving attention to both personal and professional characteristics in written evaluations (Rhodes and Peckham, 1960). Personal qualities considered most important were emotional poise, health and vitality and courtesy and tact. The professional competencies of most importance were ability to plan and motivate lessons, knowledge of basic skills and development of pupil morale.

A survey of over 500 superintendents and personnel directors in Michigan showed that the information in evaluations deemed most important pertained to attitudes of candidates toward children, teaching and education in general (Yantis and Carey, 1972). The administrators in that study clearly recognized the importance of having both objective and subjective components of evaluations.

School principals and superintendents in Mississippi ranked effective use of English, student teaching performance and personal appearance highest in terms of importance in teacher selection (Napier, 1975). Various academic credentials appeared next in the list of rankings, and background variables (race and environment) and scores on the National Teachers Exam appeared last. Based on these findings, the researcher concluded that teacher candidates should not be judged

first by academic records, but rather by the way they communicate in initial contacts, letters and interviews. Actually, an opposite conclusion would not contradict the findings of this study. Initial screening criteria will be discussed in the summary section of this chapter.

The results of a survey of hiring officials from 208 midwestern school districts (Lesher and Wade, 1972) are consistent with those of the Napier study described above. The characteristics displayed in interviews considered most important pertained to appearance, self-confidence and facility for verbal communication. Apparently, many relevant factors which could be assessed effectively in interviews are neglected. In regard to letters of application, that a letter be neatly written and grammatically correct is considered more important than the relevance and originality of the content.

Wisconsin school administrators considered the letter of reference written for student teachers by cooperating teachers the most important credential in a placement file (Mortaloni, 1974). The five most important personal characteristics the administrators felt should be described in such letters were:

a. Enthusiasm
b. Ability to benefit from advice
c. Dependability
d. Cooperative attitude
e. Desire to work hard

The top five professional characteristics were:

a. Understanding of children and their basic needs
b. Ability to maintain classroom control
c. Provision for individual differences
d. Personal and interpersonal relationships with children
e. Ability to plan well in advance for lessons

In a study involving forty-seven New Jersey school administrators, Gaughan (1967) found that the "factors which administrators considered most frequently in deciding to employ or reject an applicant were the applicant's attitude toward teaching and the impression the administrator formed as to how the applicant would get along with students."

Johnson (1976) surveyed 104 Ohio central office administrators and principals and found the personal characteristics considered most important in interviews to be neat physical appearance, good verbal skills and emotional balance. Favorable letters of reference from cooperating teachers and supervisors were considered most important academic credentials, and among the most critical professional characteristics were clarity of professional goals, provision for individual differences and enthusiasm. The participants in that study also strongly agreed that applicants should possess "a sound educational philosophy." The advisability of this latter criterion is discussed in the summary section.

Several studies have found a basic general agreement between various groups on selection criteria considered most important and least important (Blakeslee, 1967; Draayer, 1966; Brooks, 1967; Morse, 1963). The various groups are teachers, supervisors, principals, central office personnel, superintendents and school board members. Roberson (1976) found considerable agreement with respect to teacher selection criteria between school personnel directors from Louisiana and Texas. Certainly the other studies discussed so far in this section give evidence of this consistency between states. Halgren (1968) and Culhane (1964) found that administrators from school dis-

tricts of different sizes had different attitudes toward the value of particular criteria. Culhane, for example, concluded that in large school districts more importance is assigned to criteria which are oriented inward toward the values of professional education, while in small districts more importance is assigned to criteria which are oriented toward the social systems outside the schools. Perhaps the latter is a luxury larger systems cannot enjoy considering their heterogeneity.

Some studies have been concerned with what might be considered "unintentional criteria." Rice (1975) found that irrelevant biographical information is an important determinant in the evaluation of prospective teachers by school administrators. In this study "irrelevant" information referred to "out-of-role" behavior (e.g., personal life).

Taibl (1973) and Merritt (1970, 1971a,b) showed that attitude congruence between interviewers and teacher candidates has an influence on employment decisions. "Principals are more attracted to candidates with attitudes about education that are similar to their own than to candidates with attitudes dissimilar to their own even when the latter are more highly qualified by objective measures of probable competence" (Merritt; 1970, 1971a,b). Actually a principal must select individuals who can work in an already existing system. Thus, attitude congruence is not necessarily a bad thing, but it should certainly not be at the expense of competence or based on attitudes irrelevant to the school functions or teaching process.

Predictive Quality of Criteria

In order to evaluate the predictive quality of teacher selection criteria, teacher candidates' status with respect to these criteria or

"predictors" must be weighed against some ultimate criterion of teaching effectiveness. Thus, researchers compute correlation coefficients between pre-employment information on teacher candidates and post-employment performance. Unfortunately, there are some serious, yet seemingly unavoidable, limitations in this practice.

First, the definition and measurement of teacher effectiveness are problems educational researchers have been wrestling with for years. Uncertainty with respect to the first threatens the validity of measures; and, of course, finding reliable measures is no easy task in itself. Thus, one ends up wondering if the right thing is being predicted (validity) and is left in doubt about the efficiency of predictors since an unreliable measure of teacher effectiveness can only lead to low correlations. Increased objectivity of measurement can increase reliability; however, some validity can be sacrificed if one measures only that which is easily measured objectively. Clearly, subjective assessment must play some part in teacher selection.

A second major limitation of research in this area has to do with what is referred to as the "restriction-of-range" phenomenon as it affects correlation coefficients. If there is little variance in either of two variables being correlated, a sizable correlation coefficient is not likely to be obtained. The correlations between predictors and later effectiveness can only be based on data from individuals who have completed teacher education programs and actually been hired as teachers (in order to obtain a measure of on-the-job performance). Consequently the researcher is only dealing with individuals on the upper ends of the distributions for many predictor

variables, since those not meeting the established criteria have already been weeded out. This problem is documented by Ledbetter (1972) and McEwen (1972) among others. For research purposes, it would be best if personnel directors would gather their pre-employment data on individuals, then ignore it and randomly select new teachers. In this way they would be employing teachers representing the full range with respect to predictor variables and probably with respect to teaching effectiveness as well. Such a strategy would be absurd, of course; but the fact that it cannot be used is a limitation that must be kept in mind when one interprets the research. One other concern related to research in this area pertains directly to the measurement of the criterion variable of teacher effectiveness. Frequently, on-the-job performance is based, at least in part, on principals' ratings. Are principals unbiased when evaluating teachers they themselves hired? Research by Erratt (1970) suggests that there are times when they are not.

Like most literature reviews, the emphasis of this one is on the more recent research. However, some of the more extensive research on the prediction of teacher effectiveness was conducted in the 1940s and 1950s. Much of that research is summarized in Wisconsin Studies of the Measurement and Prediction of Teacher Effectiveness (Barr et al, 1961). Findings from these earlier studies have not outlived their usefulness. Thus, a few will be described here.

Lins (1946) studied predictors of teaching efficiency measured three ways--supervisors' ratings, student evaluations and student achievement gains. While there was some variation in the "best" predictors of the three criteria, the items generally having predictive

value were academic grades, supervisor ratings of student teaching, impressions of interviewers and various objective measures such as grades in certain teacher education courses and performance on standardized tests. Both subjective and objective data were useful predictors. Objective data was more predictive of pupil gain, while subjective data had a slight edge in predicting supervisory ratings.

Von Haden (1946) found some lack of agreement between subjective and objective predictions of teaching effectiveness. However, the primary concern of his study was subjective predictors which were quite useful in predicting supervisor ratings of teacher success but not as useful in predicting student evaluations of teachers or pupil gain as measured by tests. The impressions of interviewers seemed to be the most effective subjective measures, better than ratings of teacher education instructors and practice teaching supervisors. Von Haden concluded that objective and subjective evaluations predict different aspects of teaching ability and performance. This conslusion would indicate the importance of using both approaches in evaluating teacher candidates.

The results obtained by Jones (1946) whose major emphasis was objectively measured predictors, were consistent with Von Haden's conclusion about differences between objective and subjective measures. He stated, "Whatever pupil gain measures in relation to teaching ability is not that emphasized in supervisory ratings." High-school class rank was the best single predictor of pupil gain. Other important predictors were grades in particular teacher education courses, and scores on interest and adjustment inventories.

The remainder of this section will present the key findings of more recent research pertaining to the effectiveness of specific predictor

variables. Strom and Larimore (1970) found four objective psychological measures which predicted teacher effectiveness measured by teacher educator and principal ratings. The four variables were two scales from the California Psychological Inventory (CPI), one scale of the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (EPPS) and one scale of the Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation (FIRO-B). The two CPI scales were Achievement via Conformance and Femininity. A person scoring high on the first is capable, cooperative, organized, responsible, stable, sincere, persistent and values intellectual activity as opposed to coarse, stubborn, aloof, insecure, opinionated, disorganized and pessimistic. High femininity scores are earned by people who are appreciative, patient, helpful, gentle, perservering, sincere, respectful of others and sympathetic as opposed to outgoing, ambitious, active, restless, blunt, direct, manipulative, opportunistic with others and impatient. The EPPS scale of interest is the Achievement scale which defines achievement as doing one's best to succeed by skill and effort, to exceed others in solving problems and to be recognized as an accomplished authority. This scale did not correlate highly with the other predictor, the CPI--Achievement via Conformity scale--a good quality of predictors. The final predictor, FIRO-B--Expressed Control, which measures a person's tendency to feel he controls people, did not correlate highly with teacher effectiveness, but correlated highly with at least one other predictor. This variable is what is called a "suppressor" variable and contributes indirectly to the prediction of teacher effectiveness. These four predictors accounted for 88% of the variance in teacher effectiveness in this study (a suspiciously high percentage).

Another study uncovered a significant relationship between teaching success and an early measure of democratic attitude (Freehill, 1963). This attitude was measured by a scale of the Problems in Human Relations Test. Cole (1961) found that certain data from the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory and from group Rorschach tests significantly correlated with ratings of teachers by classroom observers while conventional selection criteria did not. Cole pointed out that the most logical explanation of this is the problem described at the beginning of this section--namely, once candidates had met the established criteria (usually academic ones), these criteria could no longer be useful in predicting teaching success. The ranges of performance on personality measures, however, are not restricted after initial screenings.

Mascho et al (1966) found that grade point average by itself is not a useful predictor of elementary school teaching competency based on the Observer Scale. The Strong Vocational Interest Inventory and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory were not effective predictors. Measures which were of some predictive value were scales from the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (Introversion-Extroversion, Masculinity-Femininity and Psychasthenia) and scales of the DF Opinion Scale (Cultural Conformity and Need for Precision). Standardized tests of academic factors were not good predictors; however, the authors recognized that the subjects of this study, survivors of previous screening, were fairly homogeneous with respect to these academic variables. Thus, the restriction-of-range problem described previously may again have masked the effect of these factors. In another component of this study, subjective data from interviews

of college freshmen and sophomores were highly predictive of pre-service ratings of teaching success. Personal characteristics ascessed in these interviews were motivation, emotional balance, social intelligence, initiative, speaking ability, insight, voice, physical appearance and grooming.

Ort (1964) concluded that academic credentials (college grades and standardized achievement test scores) and personality or attitude inventories did not have predictive value with respect to teaching success. The best predictors were impressions of and scale evaluations by supervisory persons.

In a study of over two hundred first-year teachers in Arizona, Greaves (1972) found that "student teaching is predictive of first-year teaching performance. . .grade point averages are predictive of student teaching performance, but not predictive of first-year teaching performance, and the variables 'understands pupils, potential as a teacher, desire to improve and knowledge of subject,' which are observed in student teaching, when combined with grade point average in teacher preparation courses are the best predictors of first-year teaching performance." An important finding of this study resulted from breaking the criterion of teaching effectiveness down into different components. Measures of student teacher characteristics correlated differently with different components of the criterion. This demonstrates the multifaceted nature of both the predictors and the outcome variable of teaching success.

Bueker (1972) noted that a composite of academic credentials (test scores, grade point average and student teaching grades) did predict first-year teacher performance ratings. Another researcher,

however, found no relationship between six independent variables taken singly or in combination and teaching effectiveness (Harned, 1974). The six variables were four personality test scores from the Gordon Personal Profile, grade point average in major area and academic grade in student teaching.

The following hiring criteria were used in the district used in another study (Short, 1977): interviewers' evaluations, age, experience, grade point average, degree, sex, race and National Teacher Examinations. Of these, only interviewers' evaluations correlated significantly with principals' global evaluations of teachers during their first year of teaching. Quirk, Witten and Weinberg (1973) reviewed studies of the validity of the National Teacher Examinations (NTE). They concluded that the NTE scores were poor predictors of on-the-job ratings of teachers.

Smith (1969) discovered that none of a large number of traditional teacher selection criteria were significantly correlated with third-year teacher ratings. Stumpe (1967) found that only ratings of student teacher performance were predictive of later teaching success and that they were better for predicting first-year teaching performance than third-year performance. This suggests that we may be too concerned with predicting "instant success" and tend to ignore the possibility that people "grow" into good teachers over time. Perhaps researchers should give more attention to the pre-service characteristics of those who are considered effective teachers after a few years of experience.

An interesting study by Vukovich (1970) also showed student teacher evaluations to be predictive of first-year teaching success measured by principals' ratings. Vukovich found that a more care-

ful, systematic content analysis of the evaluations improved the accuracy of predictions. Apparently, specific characteristics of the evaluations differentiated successful versus unsuccessful teachers. Successful teachers had superlative statements in their student teaching evaluations, while such statements were absent from evaluations of the unsuccessful teachers. Qualifying statements were notably absent from the student teaching evaluations of successful teachers. The nature of descriptions of critical incidents differed for the two groups as well. Thus, a conscientious attempt to analyze student teacher evaluations in terms of superlative statements, qualifying statements and critical incidents could improve the predictive quality of such evaluations.

Another strategy for improving information on student teaching performance is to leave less up to chance. Adams (1967) developed a rating sheet which required student teacher evaluators to rate the teacher candidates on specific characteristics. While such ratings must still remain subjective to some extent, at least the prospective employer can be assured that information on particular attributes of the candidates will not be omitted as they might be in purely narrative evaluations. Furthermore, reliability of measurement should be enhanced. Data from the rating sheet developed by Adams did correlate well with subsequent on-the-job ratings. Such rating forms are not uncommon; however, research cited previously in this review indicates that criteria that might be reflected in these forms should be locally determined so that local values and conditions are not ignored. Specific selection criteria intended for general use have not always been effective. Furthermore, rating forms can be "tailored" to fit the specific vacancies as well.

Hale (1970) developed a special education teacher selection scale and demonstrated its usefulness.

The importance of "local tailoring" suggests that districts should incorporate into their policy provisions for the on-going evaluation of the effectiveness of their own selection criteria. Unfortunately, this type of "local" research is neglected. In a study of thirty-four large Missouri school districts, Smith (1976) found that in fewer than one-fourth of the districts, were there any attempts made to validate selection criteria by relating them to subsequent teacher evaluations.

Summary and Recommendations

This document is not the first to review research on teacher selection. Three reviews of note were Wisconsin Studies of the Measurement and Prediction of Teacher Effectiveness (Barr et al, 1961); papers by Hall and Vincent, Mitzel and Ryans in the 1960 Encyclopedia of Educational Research; and "Research on Teacher Selection," a chapter by Schalock in the 1979 Review of Research in Education published by the American Educational Research Association. Barr's review is a comprehensive summary of investigations conducted some years ago. An examination of more recent research leads one to the conclusion that little progress has been made in this area.

The most recent review (Schalock, 1979) concentrates on research on teacher effectiveness from which the author draws implications for selection. Consequently, Schalock discusses characteristics and behaviors of teachers already "on the job." Thus, his emphasis is on correlates, perhaps even components, of good teaching measured after the fact--such factors are not necessarily predictors

of use to hiring officials. However, the conclusions he does make regarding "true" predictors are consistent with the findings reviewed herein.

Although Schalock's title might be considered a misnomer, his attention to the matter of teacher effectiveness is not unjustified. A limitation of much research on teacher selection procedures and criteria has to do with the definition and measurement of the variable being predicted, teacher success or effectiveness. Bransford (1967) among others discussed the effect of reliability of measurement or correlations between variables. The question of validity is also raised frequently. In their reviews, Hall and Vincent, Mitzel and Ryans all discuss the difficulties in assessing teacher effectiveness. Clearly, it is a multidimensional attribute. However, the studies reviewed in this report certainly used measures of effectiveness which fit someone's informed perception of good teaching or which measured at least some component of teacher effectiveness. Thus, one should not ignore the findings of previous research because of concern over the nebulous nature of the primary dependent variable, legitimate as this concern may be. A great deal of useful information has been generated, teachers are always being hired and hiring officials should be using the information available instead of waiting for a "go ahead" sign from those trying to capture something that is likely to remain elusive.

Overview of Research Findings

Apparently, in most districts or school systems, stated policies or established procedures for teacher selection are nonexistent. The interview is the most commonly used procedure for gathering information

on teacher candidates. Thus, evaluations based on interviews constitute one of the most important factors upon which hiring decisions are based. Interviewers are seldom trained, and their evaluations tend to be quite subjective and global. Nevertheless, ratings from interviews seem to predict teaching effectiveness with some degree of success.

There is a great deal of concern over the reliability of interview ratings. However, many of the studies dealing with interrater reliability involved raters from different school settings and with different background and orientations. Research clearly demonstrates the importance of locally established procedures and criteria. Perhaps the reliability of most concern is that between raters who would normally be working cooperatively in the selection process. Also, considering each rater independently, it is important that each person be consistent in the way he or she evaluates different candidates. Regardless of the type of reliability in question, predetermined interview formats make interview ratings more objective and reliable. Such formats should be locally developed, however, because of the importance of situational factors in determining teacher success.

In addition to interviews, other important sources of information used in teacher selection are academic credentials, references (from student teaching supervisors, course instructors, etc.), and various tests and inventories. Ratings based on interviews appear to be the best predictors of global ratings of teacher effectiveness.

The lists of specific selection criteria (predictors of teacher effectiveness) valued by various decision makers are quite extensive.

Generally, they fit into the categories of academic credentials, personal characteristics, professional qualities and background variables. There is considerable agreement about which are the most important criteria among groups of decision makers (teachers, principals, supervisors, etc.); but some differences between districts do exist. Again the importance of situational/local factors is demonstrated. Criteria consistently valued highly are communication skills, student teaching performance, physical appearance and various personality traits.

It is in research on the predictive value of selection criteria that the measures of teacher effectiveness become a serious concern. There is evidence that different measures of teacher effectiveness address different components of the attribute. Thus, the relative quality of various predictors varies depending on the outcome measure. For example, interview ratings which tend to be subjective and global appear to be the best predictors of first-year teacher ratings by principals which also tend to be subjective and global. (Barr wondered if such ratings were not merely compatibility ratings.) However, more objectively measured predictors such as scores on various kinds of tests are of considerable value when teacher effectiveness is measured more objectively (for example, by residual pupil gain). In any case, the research clearly demonstrates the importance of the use of multiple predictors and multiple measures of effectiveness.

The specific selection criteria which seem to predict teaching success most effectively are student teaching performance and various personality factors. Academic credentials do not appear to predict teaching success; however, this finding does not lessen the importance

of academic credentials since the samples used in the research studies consisted of individuals previously screened on the basis of academic variables, thereby limiting the magnitude of the correlations that could be obtained between academic factors and effectiveness ratings.

The Non-Research Literature

Although the emphasis of this review is research on teacher selection, a major proportion of the literature in the area is not research-related. Rather, it describes procedures and criteria recommended by various professional groups and individual educators. Such guidelines and position statements are products of years of experience and are cited in this section because they would certainly be useful to school personnel interested in making their teacher selection practices more systematic and effective (Coulbourn, 1938; American Association of Examiners and Administrators of Educational Personnel, 1951; McKenna, 1965; Redfern, 1967; Personnel Management Service, 1967; Bolton, 1973; Alberti, 1974; Lang, 1974; Clifford, 1975; Erickson and Shinn, 1977; American Association of School Personnel Administrators (AASPA), 1977; Wood et al, 1979).

Some authors favor some innovative practices in teacher selection. For example, Turner and Collea (1977) described a three-staged process involving (1) a preliminary questionnaire requiring a great deal of a candidate's time and effort and intended to eliminate the casual inquirer via self-screening, (2) a group interview in which a candidate is faced with a simulation task and (3) a final task requiring the candidate to role-play in an actual classroom situation.

Technology can also make some contributions to teacher selection. While the research suggests that videotaped interviews are not as good

as live interviews, it is possible that a videotape of a teacher candidate in an actual teaching situation would be a worthwhile component of the candidate's file. Thus, the low feasibility of live classroom observations of several candidates need not be a problem (Fuhr, 1977; Wright, 1972; Kalick, 1971). A 1969 report of the National School Public Relations Association anticipated the increased use of computers in teacher placement. NEA*SEARCH was a computer-based locator system started in 1967 operating under the administration of the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards.

Local "Tailoring"

The research reviewed previously clearly points to the desirability of locally established selection procedures and criteria. The non-research literature agrees. Ryans (1960) concluded that the quality of predictors depends on "the degree of similarity between the sample with respect to which predictors are derived, and the sample to which the predictors are applied." In other words, "locally varying expectations arising from varying values (e.g., is the teacher to be permissive or a disciplinarian)" must be considered when teacher candidates are being evaluated (Ryans, 1967). A panel convened by NIE to recommend research on teacher selection devoted a considerable portion of their discussion to the "values and priorities which school systems place on possible educational outcomes and how school systems differ in their educational goals" (Gage, 1975). In his analysis of the needs of inner-city children and presentation of a model program for selecting inner-city teachers, Hendrix (1970) recognized that selection criteria might be very different for different communities. Palmer (1968) discussed the importance of "situa-

tional factors" in the teacher selection process. Such factors include the size and type of communities, districts and schools; socioeconomic status; and school organization, etc. While recognizing the importance of local tailoring, Wood et al (1979) also warns that faculty diversity and innovativeness are desirable.

Job Specifications

The characteristics of the teaching vacancy itself must not be overlooked (Palmer, 1968; Lang, 1974; Cross and Davis, 1976; Berg and Brimm, 1978; Erickson and Shinn, 1977; Diekrager, 1969). Teacher selection would be more successful if job responsibilities were well defined prior to the selection process and if selection criteria were tailored to the vacancy. Kleinman (1960) reminded us that "selection is a two-way process." If candidates have sufficient information about the vacancies and situational factors, those selected are less likely to be dissatisfied. Thus, informed self-selection can improve teacher selection (Kleinman, 1960; AASPA, 1977). Wood et al (1979) also emphasize the importance of considering the candidates' wants.

Who Should Select?

There is general concensus that several people should be involved in the process of evaluating teacher candidates. Many writers recommend the use of "screening committees" or "interview teams" (Diamond, 1974; Cross and Davis, 1976; Fuhr, 1977; Erickson and Shinn, 1977; AASPA, 1977; DiPasquale, 1970). Cross and Davis (1976) point out that the approach to faculty selection used in colleges and universities would be most appropriate for selecting public school teachers. A committee of professional faculty working with the organizational unit in which the vacancy exists should be involved in devising the job specifications, interviewing candidates

and making recommendations to the administrator responsible for final decisions.

Research has shown that in some districts (especially large ones) central office personnel select and assign teachers with no input from those with whom the new teachers are to work. Fuhr (1977) strongly suggests that personnel directors make use of selection committees comprised of the principal and several teachers from the building where the vacancy exists.

Of course, the selection process includes more than interviews. It should be a coordinated effort of training institutions, teachers and school and school district administrative personnel (Erickson and Shinn, 1977; Madden, 1968; DiPasquale, 1970). Active recruiting and interviewer training are important components (Erickson and Shinn, 1977; AASPA, 1977). The possibility of involving consultants for developing systematic selection strategies and for carrying them out should not be overlooked (Erickson and Shinn, 1977).

Objectivity vs. Subjectivity

Bauthues (1968) distinguished between clinical and actuarial approaches to teacher selection. The former assumes the uniqueness of an individual cannot be characterized by statistical analysis of isolated variables and results in a more global description of a teacher candidate. This subjective approach relies heavily on the personal interview. The actuarial approach relies on the careful definition and measurement of specific performance outcomes. Bauthues reported that the clinical approach is most commonly used, yet he suggested that the actuarial strategy had greater potential

Several authors believe greater objectivity is necessary in teacher selection. They recommend an achievement model which requires

not only the collection of academic credentials, but also the evaluation of specific teaching behaviors (DiPasquale, 1970; Medley, 1967; Mitzel, 1967; Gilbert and Lang, 1967). They feel that "overall teacher effectiveness" is a useless concept.

Redfern (1966) suggests that in many systems (especially large cities) objectivity in selection is the "paramount goal." Such systems which "employ written and oral examination procedures rely heavily upon test scores and eligibility lists." Redfern points out, however, that "those systems that use a minimum of specific selection criteria, relying rather heavily upon an interviewer's judgment of a candidate plus application credentials, tend to believe that their methods of selection are as valid and reliable as those employed by systems using more elaborate procedures."

The research clearly indicates that both objective and subjective approaches have merit. Therefore, the most desirable strategy would be to use a combination of techniques for evaluating teacher candidates. Thompson (1979) suggests that objective criteria may be used first for initial screening to provide the basis for interviews of the more promising candidates. Subjective criteria would be assessed during the interviews.

Interviews

According to Wood et al (1979), the interview is the determining factor in the selection of beginning teachers, and as such should be conducted much more effectively. While some subjectivity in teacher selection is unavoidable and even desirable, the research does indicate that increasing objectivity when possible is beneficial. For example, the use of rating forms in conjunction with interviews assures that the

interviewer will address all the factors considered important and ultimately increases reliability of ratings. Bailey (1978) and Poole (1974) found interview guides to be useful tools for teacher selection.

Brannon (1975), Schumann (1977), Bayuk and Bayuk (1978) and Wood et al (1979) recommend long and quite extensive interviews of teacher candidates. Brannon describes forty-one interview questions found effective in a particular district. Wood et al (1979) also propose several interview questions intended to penetrate the superficial. Schumann and Bayuk and Bayuk assume good teachers are products of superior training and propose questions which solicit information on the quality of training and the candidate's knowledge of trends in his or her discipline, instructional techniques and materials, testing, ways to deal with specific classroom situations, etc.

Ideas for assessing specific criteria are described by several authors. Thompson (1979) provides suggestions for evaluating appearance, spontaneity, self-confidence and sense of humor in interviews. Ideas for interviews of prospective mathematics teachers presented by Kaltsounis (1974) deal with self-confidence, professional training, ability to visualize and intellectual adventuresomeness. Cross and Nagle (1969) propose ways to differentiate in interviews between student vs. content orientation. DeWitt (1973) stresses the importance of affective skills and suggests interview techniques to clarify applicants' attitudes toward themselves and students.

Aside from the "content" of interviews, hiring officials have a variety of interview approaches from which to choose. Criscuolo (1977) describes four kinds of interviews: individual, group (involving several candidates), panel (involving several interviewers), and

action interviews (requiring candidates to present lessons). Regardless of the interview approach, researchers cited previously have concluded that training and detailed planning of interviews are beneficial.

Selection Criteria

A list of specific selection criteria investigated in the research would be quite extensive. Much of the non-research literature includes lists of recommended criteria also. It is clear that no single criterion is of consistently high predictive quality (Redfern, 1966). This fact and the multidimensionality of teacher effectiveness are evidence of the importance of using a wide variety of criteria and information-gathering techniques.

Redfern (1967) concluded that information obtained from oral interviews was most predictive of teaching success, academic achievement data second most predictive and information from references third. The three broad categories of selection criteria are personal/social, academic and professional criteria. Different individuals and groups differ in the emphasis they place on criteria from these categories. The recommendations of the New York State Council for Social Studies (1974) stress professional qualities such as teaching skills, experience in curriculum, experience "outside" of teaching, professional attitudes and rationale for teaching social studies. Madden (1968) recommends change orientation, specialization and cooperation, knowledge of teaching and learning strategies, willingness to experiment and professional preparation.

In his dissertation which was itself a review of research, Diekrager (1969) concluded that subject matter training and communication skills

were valuable academic criteria while coursework in general professional education and IQ were not. Various personality characteristics and breadth of geographic background were considered useful personal criteria, but background variables such as sex, age, marital status and socioeconomic status were not.

The criteria listed below are in ascending order of predictive power according to Schalock (1979):

Predictors of Effectiveness	Point Where Measurement Is Best Taken
Academic ability/achievement	Entrance to a preparation program
Personality characteristics-attitudes/interests	
Experience with children	
Knowledge related to teaching, including content to be taught	Recommendation to engage in student teaching
Skills related to teaching	
Performance of teaching functions under simplified teaching conditions • Under simulated classroom conditions (e.g., peer teaching; response to filmed classroom events) • Under simplified classroom conditions (e.g., small groups in a classroom; micro-teaching) • Under the conditions of short-term full-responsibility teaching (e.g., 2 to 5 days)	
Behavior of pupils taught under simplified conditions (e.g., time on task; frequency of disruptions)	
Achievement of pupils taught under simplified conditions (e.g., attainment of learning outcomes desired from a lesson or across 2 to 5 days of instruction)	
Attitudes toward teaching and being a teacher at the conclusion of the student teaching experience	Recommendation for an initial level of certification
Quality of interpersonal relationships evidenced during the course of student teaching	

Performance of teaching functions under the conditions of extended full-responsibility teaching (e.g., 2 to 5 weeks)

Behavior of pupils taught under the conditions of extended full-responsibility teaching

Achievement of pupils taught under the conditions of extended full-responsibility teaching (e.g., the attainment of learning outcomes desired from a 2 to 5-week period of instruction

Needless to say, there is no shortage of recommended lists of selection criteria. It is not the purpose of this section to give them all, but rather it is to discuss the kinds of criteria which may be valuable. Generally, research has found that academic criteria are not as predictive of teacher effectiveness as personality factors. However, one must remember that relationships between predictors and teaching effectiveness can only be measured using a sample of "already-selected" teachers. Consequently, the academic factors have lost some of their predictive power. Fortunately, most people do not minimize the importance of academic credentials. Sisk (1969) recognizes the importance of using both personal/social characteristics and academic credentials as selection criteria. The former "are the qualities that make a teacher out of a scholar." Thus, the use of academic credentials for initially selecting candidates for further consideration may be a reasonable strategy.

Sisk suggests that one's philosophy of education is not a valuable selection criterion. He claims that new teachers probably do not have one, and that teachers change their philosophies anyway. One wonders if the same problem may exist for other professional qualities and if, perhaps, individuals "grow" into teachers over time. The research indicating that traditional criteria predict first-year teaching performance

reasonably well but not third-year performance lends some credence to this possibility.

Deciding upon selection criteria to use is no simple matter. Dale Bolton (1970) has written a great deal on this process and his work should be of use to districts interested in setting up a systematic program for teacher selection. Procedures and criteria should be determined locally, and such an undertaking should be a cooperative effort of many individuals.

Recommendations

Ideas for improving teacher selection practices are presented and discussed throughout the previous sections of this report. Some specific recommendations are listed below without elaboration:

1. Develop a systematic program of teacher selection. The hiring of a teacher is an important investment.

2. Actively recruit if necessary. The job market is tight, and even the most capable teacher candidates would be receptive. Asking someone at a teacher education institution the names of the most promising student teachers could do no harm.

3. Use research. Findings summarized in this report and in the original documents could be useful in establishing procedures and criteria.

4. Involve several people in both the development of the program and the evaluation of candidates. Several people will have to work with a new teacher--they should have some input in the selection process. Consultants, perhaps from teacher education institutions, may be of some service.

5. Use a variety of information-gathering methods and selection criteria. Different methods are appropriate for different kinds of information, and different criteria relate to different components of teaching effectiveness.

6. Establish selection criteria locally--at the district or even school level. For some criteria, this may require some simple, but on-going local research.

7. Tailor selection criteria to specific teaching vacancies.

8. There is no shortage of teacher candidates, and therefore no reason to hire a teacher without superior academic credentials. One strategy might be to screen candidates initially based on academic criteria. Personal and professional qualities of the more promising candidates may be assessed in latter stages. Keep in mind, some qualities may be developed after a teacher has taught for a while.

9. Do not underestimate the importance of either objectively or subjectively gathered information on candidates. However, it is advisable to increase objectivity where appropriate. For example, interview guides and rating forms and standard forms for recommendations can be helpful.

10. Many of the criteria valued by educators are difficult to measure. The interview remains an important means of evaluating candidates. Extensive, planned interviews can accomplish far more than superficial interviews which may be mere formalities. Personal contact with supervisors of "finalists" may provide far more information than the student teacher evaluation forms.

11. Give candidates as much information as possible about the teaching position and "environmental factors." Self-selection on the part of candidates can simplify and improve teacher selection.

12. The success of teacher selection practices requires continuous monitoring. No matter how good a selection program is, there will be some teachers who do not "work out." Some losses due to occupational changes must be expected, especially among young people. However, knowledge of the specific reasons persons do not work out and the characteristics of those individuals can be useful to the improvement of selection criteria.

CHAPTER II

THE SELECTION OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

Selection Procedures

There have been considerably fewer research studies of administrator selection procedures than studies of teacher selection procedures. Most of them have been status studies intended to determine the existing policies of various districts or states.

Newberry (1975) investigated the procedures and criteria used to select elementary school principals in British Columbia. Based on questionnaires administered to superintendents, he found there was seldom a written selection policy, written job descriptions were not used and there was little use of consultation from outside the system. A great deal of recruitment activity did take place in the form of newspaper advertisements and internal announcements. Superintendents, personnel directors and school board members were largely responsible for selection; and there was little or no involvement of parents, teachers or other principals. Primary sources of information on candidates were the interview, references and reports of past teaching performance or student teaching.

Several studies on the selection of school administrators in the United States have findings consistent with those of Newberry. A survey by the National Education Association Research Division (Lucio and McNeil, 1969) showed that most districts recruit heavily for administrators by means of advertisements, announcements, letters to teachers, and notices to placement bureaus and colleges. After consid-

erable initial screening based on application forms, most districts require written or oral examinations. The oral exams are either informal or structured interviews. Both are usually evaluated by committees consisting primarily of administrators appointed by the superintendent. Recommendations resulting from this study were (1) the use of established procedures and standards, (2) considerable attention to the training of administrators through internships and inservice and (3) emphasis on leadership ability as the most important selection criterion.

A study of principal selection in California showed that the major steps in the process were (1) "paper" screening, (2) interview by a committee, (3) selection by the superintendent and (4) approval by the school board (California State Legislature, 1977). The interview committees usually consisted of district personnel, teachers and parents. The committees would make recommendations to the central office. This study also found that the selection process was not systematic, and there were no written policies or guidelines. Furthermore, the likelihood of selection depended on contacts the candidates had in the central office.

Sharpe (1976) compared the principal selection practices of a medium-sized district in the U.S. to those of the school system in New South Wales, Australia. His conslusions regarding the practices of the U.S. district were (1) selection was not systematic, (2) the process was too open too personal and political influences, (3) decisions were often based on information of questionable value and (4) university credentialing was of questionable validity.

Stoker (1975) administered a questionnaire to approximately 400

elementary teachers asking their opinions on various matters associated with the principalship. Most teachers were satisfied with the way principals were selected (usually recommended by the board) and believed teachers should not be involved in the selection process. Stoker suggested that this finding was probably not typical and explained that in some areas of the country (especially those heavily unionized) teachers have a major role in principal selection. (The teachers in this study were from several districts in the Texas panhandle.) Of those teachers who felt teachers should be more involved in the process, most recommended that a teacher committee make recommendations to the superintendent and the school board.

Chadwick (1971) examined the relationships between various factors and the opinions of teachers and principals toward different aspects of the administrator selection process. She found that position, age and sex do not affect opinions about selection practices and recommended that this finding be taken into account when deciding upon members for selection panels. In her literature review, Chadwick observed (1) there is general concensus about the need for greater objectivity in administrator selection and (2) there is a trend toward greater effort to train individuals who display administrative potential.

Selection Criteria

School administrators of interest in this report are principals, supervisors and central office personnel. While at first glance, it may appear there is a reasonable amount of research on the criteria for selecting these administrators, there is reason to be cautious in rating the adequacy of research in this area. Administrative positions are quite variable in terms of the skills and qualities required to be

successful in them. One must keep this in mind when drawing general conclusions from the research findings. Although the same may be said for teaching positions, the full range of such positions was fairly well represented in the research literature. When the research on administrator selection criteria is categorized according to the type of school administrator, several positions are slighted. Much of the research focuses upon the selection of elementary school principals.

Criteria Used

The study of practices for selecting principals in British Columbia showed that the five most commonly used personal criteria were mature judgement, scholarship, personal security, group skills and good health (Newberry, 1975). The five most commonly used professional criteria were human relations skills, classroom teaching experience, decision-making skills, community relations skills and administrative technical skills. According to Newberry, surprising attention was given to age and length of classroom teaching experience.

The NEA survey found that most districts in selecting supervisors require that the candidates have several years of successful teaching experience (Lucio and McNeil, 1969). It may be that such experience is more important for supervisors than for principals. Lucio and McNeil pointed out that different persons (e.g., school board members and subordinates of administrators to be hired) have different perceptions of the role of the administrators. Thus, it is important that role be clarified in each instance and criteria be selected which are appropriate to the specific needs. These authors also distinguished between leadership traits and the effects of leadership. It is more important

to know if an individual has had any effect in a leadership role than to know if he or she has some characteristics of a leader. Since leadership seems to be a widely accepted criterion for selecting administrators, this notion certainly has implications for determining leadership potential.

One characteristic which is considered important for teachers to have is also essential for administrators--communication skills. Chadwick (1971) found this quality to be one upon which teachers and principals of all ages could agree as being important for elementary school principals.

A survey of elementary school teachers determined their perceptions of the ideal principal (Stoker, 1975). The teachers generally agreed they would want as their principal an experienced person, but one still with youthful vigor. They felt that in addition to the usual academic credentials and desirable personality traits, principals should have four to five years teaching experience. Surprisingly few teachers mentioned intelligence, aggressive leadership ability and creativity.

Teitelbaum (1972) administered a questionnaire to professional educators and lay persons in order to determine the most important personal and professional criteria for selecting elementary principals for inner city schools. Apparently there was considerable agreement about which criteria were most important. The lists below show categories of criteria in order of importance. The overlap shows it is sometimes difficult to differentiate between personal and professional qualities.

Personal Characteristics

Rank	Category
1.	Human Relations
2.	Innovative
3.	Integrity
4.	Fair Minded
5.	Good Humored
6.	Scholarship
7.	Child Oriented
8.	Charisma
9.	Emotional Stability
10.	Dedication
11.	Staff Relations
12.	Parents and Community
13.	Administration and Supervision
14.	Decision Making
15.	Personal Appearance and Health
16.	Communication Skills
17.	Authoritative
18.	Teaching Skill and Experience
19.	Humility

Professional Characteristics

Rank	Category
1.	Administration and Supervision
2.	Parents and Community
3.	Dedication
4.	Personal Character
5.	Innovation and Evaluation
6.	Professional Activities
7.	Child Oriented
8.	Teaching Skill and Experience
9.	Intelligence
10.	Educational Background
11.	Human Relations
12.	Charisma
13.	Varied Background
14.	Staff Relations

Deever and Jurs (1975) surveyed superintendents from 78 districts in 8 central and western states. The superintendents were asked to rank order eleven selection criteria for administrative personnel at the district office level. The summarized rankings were:

1. Professional Competence
2. Professional Leadership

3. Human Relations
4. Personal Motivational Characteristics
5. Intelligence
6. Professional Training and Experience - Academic and Field
7. Recommendations
8. Philosophy of Education
9. Physical Characteristics
10. Social - Economic Characteristics
11. Personal Data

Questionnaires administered to superintendents were used to determine the practices used in Texas for selecting elementary school principals (Poteet, 1968). The result of that study was a quite lengthy list of characteristics in order of their frequency of mention. While there was not a great deal of variability in these frequencies, it seems that personal qualities such as honesty, loyalty, etc. were mentioned most frequently. Both personal and professional qualities filled the middle of the list, while background variables such as political affiliation and religion were at the bottom of the list. Based on his own research and on his review of other studies, Poteet concluded that (1) some teaching experience is required, but not necessarily a lot, (2) "local tailoring" of selection criteria is necessary and consistency between the philosophy of education of the candidate and that of the district is essential, (3) leadership ability is a critical factor and (4) it is quite important that considerable information about the position and local conditions be given to the candidates.

Based on a study of the administrator selection criteria in districts of all sizes in the Pacific Northwest, Miner (1967) concluded

that criteria are determined by job performance criteria for the position and by the kind of district. Thus, organizational climate is a determining factor in selection. Miner's study is further evidence of the importancy of what has been called "local tailoring" throughout this document. He stated that "selection should be carried out primarily in terms of the value and reward structures characterizing a given school district."

Predictive Quality of Criteria

In an extensive study of school board members, superintendents, principals, other school staff members, teachers and parents (a sample of almost 6,000), Morphet and Schultz (1966) found strong support for their hypothesis that "the predictability of administrative effectiveness from individual measures is enhanced significantly by considerations of the type of district in which an administrator works."

A report of the California State Legislature (1977) stated that there are no foolproof predictors of successful performance as a school principal; this is because successful administrators have different personality types and schools have different needs. The one possible exception to the above statement acknowledged by the California report is the criterion of leadership potential. Of course, differences between individuals would cause them to demonstrate their leadership skills in different ways. Thus, the distinction Lucio and McNeil made between leadership traits and the effects of leadership becomes important when considering the criterion of leadership potential.

Thyberg (1965) found various measures of interpersonal relations did not differentiate among candidates. He concluded that the selection of school administrators is still a human judgmental process and that the

judgement of competent trained administrators is the most reliable method of evaluating candidates.

Another study was more successful at finding objectively measured predictors of administrative success. James (1960) identified various psychological measures which were significantly correlated with scores on the Purdue Rating Scale for Administrators and Executives. These measures were the Miller Analogies Test, the Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values (Theoretical, Political and Economic scales), the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory and the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (Autonomy, Exhibition, Affiliation, Intraception and Aggression scales).

A study by Leverenz (1967) led to some results which the author completely misinterpreted. He found the National Teachers Examination, interview results and years teaching experience to be predictive of whether candidates were selected or not, but not predictive of on-the-job performance ratings. Leverenz concluded that administrative performance ratings by superiors "may not discriminate between outstanding and less successful on-the-job administrative performance!" In other words, he assumed he had good predictors, but a poor criterion of success. Obviously, selection criteria should correlate with whether or not individuals are selected. Leverenz's study revealed which selection criteria are relied upon the most in the selection process. The fact that those factors did not correlate appreciably with later performance ratings should cause one to question the validity of those selection criteria.

Based on his review of research on criteria for selecting elementary school principals, Newberry (1977) recommended the use of several

personal and professional criteria. The personal criteria were intelligence, group skills, scholarship, mature judgement, good health and personal security. Professional selection criteria included skills relating to human relations, administration, decision-making, research, curriculum development and the change process. Newberry also discussed what to look for in interviews and various credentials as indicators that candidates possess such traits or skills. Irrelevant factors which are sometimes used or overemphasized in selecting principals are participation in formal education courses, extent of teaching experience (more than four or five years is unnecessary), length of previous administrative experience, age, sex and marital status. A "news" item in Nation's Schools (Anonymous, 1965) reported on a study of principal selection criteria conducted at Harvard. The conclusions reported in that document and Newberry's conclusions were very consistent with one another.

Summary and Recommendations

There is a great deal of similarity between the literature on teacher selection and that pertaining to the selection of school administrators. Many of the "issues" and findings are the same. There is also no shortage of "how-to-do-it" literature from various educators and educator groups (e.g., Seeley et al, 1971; Settles and Weller, 1977; Lewis, 1976a,b; American Association of School Administrators (AASA), 1967; Pensylvania State Department of Education, 1971).

Overview of the Research and Non-Research Literature

One of the consistent findings of researchers which is also one of the continuing concerns of the non-research literature in the area of

administrator selection is the absence of established policies for sytematic selection procedures (Buckley, 1971; Lewis, 1976b; AASA, 1967). McIntyre (1974) gives a fairly pessimistic view of the status of selection practices which he claims have changed little in the last ten years. He describes the shortcomings of various procedures used for gathering information (interviews, testing, etc.) and recommends improved interview techniques since the personal interview is and probably will continue to be the most important aspect of the selection process.

Wagstaff and Spillman (1974) claim that the process of selecting a principal is really one of self-selection. They summarize the whole process as follows: teachers aspire to be administrators; they get themselves trained and certified; and then they get the support of the central office. Several authors and researchers have discussed the political aspect of the administrator selection process.

A common recommendation in the literature calls for the active recruiting and training of potential administrators (Buckley, 1971; Bowles, 1968; Erickson and Shinn, 1977; McIntyre, 1974; AASA, 1967). It does appear that districts take a little more initiative in seeking out administrative talent than they do in pursuing effective teachers. Bowles (1968) stresses the importance of recruiting and training teachers with administrative aspirations continually, even when there are no vacant positions in the district.

Dunmire and Quigley (1970) and Lund (1977) make a strong case for the involvement of the constituents of the future administrator in the selection process. Thus, the use of committees like those recommended in the previous chapter would be beneficial. Several

authors discuss the role consultants could play in administrator selection (Hickcox and Scott, 1969; Settles and Weller, 1977; Erickson and Shinn, 1977).

Another recurring recommendation based on both research and common sense has to do with "local tailoring" of selection practices and criteria. Clearly, it is important to strive for a match between an administrator and local values, goals and specific requirements of the job vacancy (Settles and Weller, 1977; Erickson and Shinn, 1977; Buckley, 1971). This seems to be such an obvious recommendation. Why is it so often ignored? Business and industry seem to recognize its importance and frequently expend considerable time and effort to fill job vacancies. The hiring of a business administrator is an investment well worth extra effort and expense. But so is the hiring of a teacher or a school administrator! Finding a simple approach and a particular set of criteria which work in any school system for any position is an unrealistic expectation.

The debate over objectivity vs. subjectivity is also very evident with respect to the selection of school administrators. Walters (1980) describes four well-known competency-based systems for objectively measuring administrative competencies. Although intended for in-service use for professional improvement, these systems may have some application in the selection process. McIntyre (1974) states that there are too many exceptions to cling rigidly to test cut-offs, but objective measures still have greater predictive validity. He would agree with a recommendation of the previous chapter calling for increased objectivity in interview and interview-rating techniques. Heller (1975) on the other hand, discusses in considerable detail the superiority of subjectivity over objectivity in the

selection of school superintendents. His rationale is that after initial screening, all the remaining candidates have the necessary qualifications. Furthermore, all "finalists" have the backing of some prestigious people within the system. Thus, "gut reactions" and the subjective consideration of community factors and expectations become much more important.

Research on the quality of administrator selection criteria was characterized by the familiar problems of homogeneity of sample subjects (due to the fact that they were only the "selected" candidates), difficulties in measuring both predictors of success and success, and conflicting results. Several conclusions presented in the research and non-research literature do appear to be well founded. Clearly, there are many districts which attach far too much significance to irrelevant factors - selection criteria which have consistently been shown to bear little or no relationship to successful on-the-job performance. Such criteria include sex, age, marital status and length of teaching experience (beyond a few years). Academic performance and credentialing aside, a most promising category of selection criteria for administrator selection is leadership potential and the various related skills such as group, communication and community relations skills in addition to administrative/technical skills.

Thomas (1980) describes several characteristics of effective leadership in educational administrators. He suggests that a leader is resourceful and has a variety of problem-solving strategies from which to choose in different situations. Leaders often have a "cause" or an idea for change which they pursue by working

with the system not by combatting it. They are articulate, sometimes blunt, and they use more influence and less power in the decision-making process. They hold strongly to important principles (e.g., equity, justice, etc.) but do not become obsessed with lesser issues. Leaders have an uncanny knack for evaluating others and are keenly aware of their own shortcomings which they can then make allowances for. Thomas observes that there is no "best" experiential base (e.g., coursework, training, previous job experience) which produces an effective leader and agrees that factors such as age, sex and ethnicity truly are irrelevant to leadership potential.

One criterion which may be of greater importance for administrators than for teachers is philosophy of education. While it makes sense that new teachers should not be expected to have a well-formulated philosophy of education, such is not the case for new administrators. A match between the values and philosophy of an administrator and those of the district or community is essential. While this consistency of values is important, it should not be achieved at the expense of innovativeness. Stout (1973) makes a strong case for the recruitment of innovative personnel and suggests many specific characteristics to look for as evidence of innovativeness. He also claims that this desired quality is unfortunately the opposite of what is generally sought in practice.

Lists of proposed selection criteria, interview questions and techniques for evaluating particular criteria are readily available (Dunmire and Quigley, 1970; Lewis, 1976b; Pennsylvania State Department of Education, 1971: Sachs, 1966; and AASA, 1967).

Assessment centers represent a selection approach developed by the National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP).

The primary technique used in this system is simulation; candidates go through several assessment exercises and are observed by trained assessors. NASSP trains assessors and provides assessment center materials to interested school districts. This system was originated by A.T. and T. for use in industry and met with considerable success. Several articles describing the operation of and the effectiveness of assessment centers have been written (Merino, 1973; Hersey, 1977; Moses, 1977; Jeswald, 1977; Myers, 1977; Weybright, 1977; McKay and McCord, 1978).

Recommendations

As in the previous chapter, recommendations are imbedded in the previous sections. To summarize the major ones here is unnecessary because of the great consistency between the conclusions pertaining to teacher and administrator selection practices. Each of the twelve recommendations for teacher selection at the end of Chapter I applies equally as well to administrator selection. Where the procedures differ is in regard to the specific criteria that apply. This difference is not surprising considering the logical merit of tailoring selection criteria to the specific job vacancy. While there are many roles which administrators may fill, it appears that leadership skills and philosophies of education are generally regarded as considerations which are especially important for selecting school administrators of any type. Certainly candidates should be screened on the basis of obvious prerequisites and credentials. Subsequent selection criteria must be consistent with needs of the position and values and priorities of the local school community.

CHAPTER III

EQUITY IN TEACHER/ADMINISTRATOR SELECTION

Research on the use and quality of various selection procedures and criteria for school personnel does not focus on women or minorities specifically. Thus, the research findings available on equity in educational professions are primarily the statistics describing the degree to which these groups are underrepresented. There is, of course, a great deal of non-research literature giving possible explanations for this inequity and recommending ways to reduce it. The bulk of the literature pertains to women, and almost all of the remaining deals with blacks. Other minority groups and the handicapped are virtually ignored.

The Status of Women and Minorities as Professional Educators

Several authors have reported statistics from the early 1970's on the representation of women in educational occupations (Barnes, 1976; North Carolina State Department of Public Instruction, 1975; American Association of School Administrators, 1975; Froning, 1976; Schmuck, 1977). There is considerable consistency in this information which is best summarized in the list below of the approximate percentages of various positions filled by women:

Position	% Women
pre-college teachers	66
principals	14-15 (19.6% elementary, 2.9% junior high, 1.4% senior high)
district superintendents	.1-.5
assistant superintendents	5
state boards of education members	20

OE advisory committee members	28
secondary deans	12
advisors/coordinators	43
assistant principals	12
part-time assistants in asst. principals' offices	45
high school department heads	37

While there may be approximately the same numbers of men and women in education generally, within education men and women have very different career patterns (Schmuck, 1976). Administrative positions are dominated by men. Furthermore, this situation has been worsening over the years (McIntyre, 1974). To make matters worse, it seems that women are also shortchanged in regard to the salaries they receive (Kane, 1960). Schmuck (1977) observed that the ratio of female to male teachers declined between 1928 and 1968 and that the decline of the female-to-male ratio was even greater in the administrative ranks. The American Association of School Administrators (AASA, 1975) reported that the percentage of female principals dropped from 55% in 1928 to 14% in 1973, and the percentage of female superintendents fell from 9% to 1% between 1950 and 1972. Kane (1976a) noted the decline in the percentages of female teachers between 1940 and 1974 (89 to 84% at the elementary level and 58 to 47% at the high school level).

In describing changes between 1968 and 1976, Lesser (1978) explained that when the number of administrators increased, the number of male administrators increased more than the number of female administrators, and when the overall number of administrators decreased, the number of females decreased more than the number of males. Most female increases were in personnel/support positions rather than in

decision-making/control positions in which the number of females declined while the number of males increased.

Schmuck (1977) explained that within education, sex (and not experience, age or training) is the best predictor of occupation. Given that subjects are teachers, it is most likely that the women are elementary teachers and the men are high school teachers. Predictions would be even more accurate for non-teaching professional positions. A woman would most likely be a librarian or work in special education, and a man would most likely fill an administrative or supervisory role.

Interestingly, ethnic/racial minority groups may be faring a little better than women with respect to their representation in professional education occupations (McIntyre, 1974). Barnes (1976) explained that approximately one-fourth of the teachers and district-level administrators/supervisors are minorities as are 17% of the principals. However, a survey of teacher displacement (nonhiring, dismissal and demotion) suggested that black representation in eleven southern states was not improving ten years ago (Hooker, 1970). The survey detected the increasing displacement of black professional educators despite recent compliance with federal regulations designed to have the opposite effect.

Explanations of Inequity

The problem of achieving equality of opportunity in education is a very serious one which has led to a great deal of "corrective" legislation at the federal and state levels (Pearson, 1975; Education Commission of the States, 1975; North Carolina State Department of Public Instruction, 1975). Despite these efforts, other factors are

operating which hinder progress toward the goal of equal opportunity.

Much of the literature points to sex role stereotyping, sex role socialization and the myth of male superiority as causes (Coursen, 1975; Muhich, 1974; Schmuch, 1975, 1976; Blanchard, 1976; AASA, 1975; Kane, 1976a; Howard, 1975). One of the ways these causes can lead to inequity is through discriminatory practices of hiring officials. Although Stockard (1977) conducted a survey showing that adults in Oregon generally approved of women administrators, Blanchard (1976) and Kane (1976a) claimed that discriminatory practices and attitudes of prejudice are the most significant obstacles to true equality of opportunity. Kane also reminds us of the male domination at the decision levels.

One indication of possible discriminatory practices is the fact that women and minorities who do get hired as district superintendents tend to have credentials superior to those of superintendents in general (Paddock, 1978; Robinson, 1973; Doughty, 1977). Paddock reported that a higher percentage of female superintendents have doctorates than male superintendents. Robinson found that 41% of black superintendents have doctorates. This study also showed that 73% of black superintendents were in districts with predominately black enrollment and that half of these superintendents felt they were hired because of political pressure, racial unrest and the possibility of getting increased funds. Thus, in many cases, black administrators are put into districts already crippled with problems.

Deneen et al (1971) and McIntyre (1974) remind administrators that different groups show different patterns of results on various objec-

tive tests used in the selection process (e.g., Administration and Supervision Test, Miller's Analogies Test). They recognize that objective measures can be quite useful, but warn that hiring officials should be flexible with respect to specific measures and "decision rules."

The above explanations of inequities place the blame on hiring officials. One must keep in mind that sex role socialization can work in other ways. It seems that women generally have lesser administrative aspirations than men (Howard, 1975). In a study of 342 male and female teachers (both elementary and secondary) in four New England school districts (Dias, 1976), one finding was that the percentage of females aspiring to be administrators was considerably lower than that of males. (However, this difference was not as great as sex differences in actual representation in administrative professions.) Neely and Schuley (1978) see inequity as a self-fulfilling prophecy--women recognize the difficulty of getting into administrative positions and therefore have lower aspirations.

Other authors have different interpretations of how the socialization process operates. Kalvelage (1978) rejects the possibility of sex discrimination claiming that the real problem is that the "bureaucratization of schools entailed a redefinition of the elementary principal's role that clashed with the values and interests of most women, then and now." Valverde (1974) offered an explanation for the exclusion of minorities from administration. He explained that "succession socialization is the established informal route to promotion..." This is the "movement of an aspirant from candidate to protege to administrator" via sponsorship. Minorities resist accul-

turation; they do not seek sponsorship and are therefore filtered out, but not because of lack of competencies.

One point which is quite clear in the literature is that women are not less qualified for administrative positions than men. Blanchard (1976) cited research actually showing women to be superior to men with respect to responsiveness to community needs, communication skills, etc. Howard (1975) observed that research has not found differences between the sexes with respect to leadership ability. Cirincione-Coles (1975) and Mickish (1971) both summarized a great deal of research which suggested that women make just as good, if not better, principals as men. It is true that, for whatever reasons, more men are credentialed as qualified administrators, but even that difference is not as great as the difference in the numbers of male and female administrators (Barnes, 1976).

Recommendations

As one might expect, there are many "how-to-do-it" documents for establishing equal opportunity in educational professions. Such documents have been produced by various groups and individuals exemplified below:

Special Interest Groups: National Council of Administrative Women in Education (1977), Citizens Advisory Council on the Status of Women (1972).

Projects for Promoting Equity: Sex Equity in Educational Leadership (Center for Educational Policy and Management, 1977; Kempner et al 1978), Career Women in Education (Timpano and Knight, 1976).

Professional Educator Groups: American Association of School Administrators (1975), Michigan Association of School Administrators (1973).

State Departments of Education: New Jersey State Department of Education (1976), North Carolina State Department of Public Instruction (1975), Oregon State Department of Education (1977), Washington Office of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction (1974).

Individual Educators: Cirincione-Coles (1975), Coursen (1975), Dale (1974), Lewis (1976b), Plain (1972), Sommerville (1975).

A detailed description of the recommendations of these groups is unnecessary because they are strikingly consistent and obvious. A common general recommendation is that every district should establish an affirmative action plan. Of course such a plan would be a part of any teacher/administrator selection policy recommended in the previous chapters. A closer examination of the suggestions offered by the various groups shows that there should be two major components of an effective affirmative action plan--recognition of the problem and corrective action. Certainly, recognizing the problem could best be accomplished by constantly monitoring the make-up of the work force in the school system in order to determine the degree to which various groups are represented. If increased representation of a particular group is desired, the solution is obvious and merely calls for the commitment of hiring officials to the active recruiting of members of the slighted group. Contact with training institutions and a little detective work could be most helpful. Lewis (1976b) and Sommerville (1975) name several referral agencies which can be used as sources for locating qualified women and minorities for administrative positions.

A great deal of research has been conducted on various aspects of equal opportunity in education. Such research has led to some interesting findings related to various causal factors such as sex

role socialization and stereotyping. However, research has also shown that the most promising strategies for dealing with problems of inequity are direct, "head-on" approaches (Kahl, 1979). Socio-cultural factors are not very open to direct intervention. Interestingly, however, by directly encouraging more women or minorities to enter fields which have been traditionally dominated by white males, female/minority role models may increase in number and role stereotyping may be diminished over time. Thus, the solution to inequities in education-related professions is the obvious one described in most of the literature--make a concerted effort to actively recruit women and minorities when they are not represented to the degree they should be in a particular district.

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